# THE AMERICAN PSYCHOLOGIST

HE AMERICAN PSYCHOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION, INC.

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## THE AMERICAN PSYCHOLOGIST

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# WOMEN IN AMERICAN PSYCHOLOGY: FACTORS AFFECTING THEIR PROFESSIONAL CAREERS

ALICE I. BRYAN and EDWIN G. BORING

Columbia University

Harvard University

Pi Lambda Theta, National Association for Women in Education, has for some years been actively engaged in the study of women's professional problems. In 1935 the Association sponsored a survey of the research already accomplished in this field, and since then has granted Awards to thirteen research studies, most of them in this field of investigation. Pi Lambda Theta takes pride in acknowledging Women in American Psychology: Factors Affecting Their Professional Careers as the recipient of a 1946 Award granted from the Ella Victoria Dobbs Fellowship Fund.

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The following article is a condensation of the longer paper to which the Award was made. A further study of the relation of marriage to women's professional activities is planned by the authors.

REVIOUS research (1, 2) on the status women have achieved in contemporary American psychology has revealed these facts. Women constitute about 30 per cent of some 4,500 psychologists who qualify for membership in the American Psychological Association. About 47 per cent of these women hold the PhD degree, as compared with 63 per cent of their male colleagues. The women are more active than the men in practical professional work-in schools, educational systems, clinics, guidance centers, hospitals, and custodial institutions, where they hold 60 per cent of the available psychological positions. Women as a group prefer the kinds of jobs which they actually have. The average woman in 1944 was receiving less money for her professional work than was the average man, but it was not clear whether the female salary decrement was due to a greater amount of part-time work, to a lower pay rate for personalistic services than for basic research, or to discrimination against female sex as such.

We have undertaken to press this investigation further by issuing a questionnaire to psychologists who hold the PhD degree, a questionnaire enquiring into various factors which we thought might affect their careers—their family backgounds, the history of their professional interests and of their training, their attitudes toward their work, the effects of sex, marriage, parenthood, and other nonprofessional relationships upon their careers. Although interested in women, we needed to question men as a control. Presently we found ourselves as much interested in the men as in the women.

Of particular importance is the knowledge of what women do with a PhD in psychology. Do they use it? Is the money spent on training them justified? Lowther and Downes (4) have recently reported that the present limitation of women to approximately 5 per cent of the total enrollment in American medical colleges is not justified in view of the record of professional activities of 1,240 women graduates from 1921 to 1940 of seven representative Eastern medical colleges. They showed that 90 per cent of these women physicians have remained professionally active, that 82 per cent of the married women have remained in professional work. We sought the corresponding figures for psychologists (Table 10).

We chose for investigation the entire population of American women PhDs in psychology, PhDs conferred in the vigentennium 1921–1940. Omitting persons with Asiatic names, we had a list of 440 women. For each of them we chose a man, with a PhD in psychology in the same year from the same university when possible, or in nearly the same year when an exact match was impossible. We made a few other arbitrary adjustments, like pairing Bryn Mawr with Princeton. The lists of PhDs in psychology were obtained from published compilations (3, 7) and from the files of the Research Information Service of the National Research Council. Thus we had the names of 440 women, practically the total population for the period, and of 440 men matched to

them, about half the corresponding male population; 880 persons in all. Some of them were deceased, but we did not know it.

On 1 December 1945 we sent a letter to the latest address obtainable for each of these persons, using professional directories whenever possible, or writing to the alumni offices when the degree holder seemed to have disappeared professionally. With the letter we sent a reply post card, requesting the recipient to cooperate with us by agreeing to fill out anonymously a detailed questionnaire containing many items of a

out of a population which must number about a thousand, since the women are known to constitute from 30 per cent to one-third of the psychologists.

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In the following tables we have, for the most part, presented the results in terms of percentages of the total sample for each sex. For women N is 245, for men 247. This percentage value shows the relation of each category to the total better than do the actual frequencies. When categories are not mutually exclusive, the total is, of course, greater than 100 per cent.

TABLE 1
Analysis of returns of the questionnaire

	we	OMEN	MEN		TO	TAL
Original matched populations	440		440		880	
Rejected later as in error						
Degree not in psychology	30		31		61	
Deceased	15	45	21	52	36	97
	_			_		_
Corrected populations		395		388		783
Unavailable for study						
Latest known address inadequate	39		47		86	
Declined to answer questionnaire	3		1	1	4	
Returned questionnaire too late	3		5		8	
Returned postcard but not questionnaire	45		28	1	73	
No reply to either of two requests	60	150	60	141	120	291
	_	_				
Questionnaires returned for study		1		1		
After first request by postcard	213		213		426	
After second request with questionnaire	32	245	34	247	66	492
	-		-		-	
Proportion of corrected population who made returns.	245	CO 000	247	62 201	492	ca 000
	395	= 62.0%	388	= 63.7%	783	= 62.8%

personal nature. Of the 880 persons, 499 returned the post card. Each of them was sent a question-naire at once on the return of his post card. Of these 499 questionnaires, 426 had been returned by 20 April. On 15 January we sent questionnaires to the 381 persons who had not returned the post card; 66 of these persons later returned the questionnaire. There were 8 questionnaires received late and not used, one of them in October, 46 weeks after the original letter had been mailed to the respondent. Table 1 analyzes the nature of the returns.

We finally went to work with two samples: 245 women out of the population of 440, and 247 men

In some tables where the no-answer category is large, we have defined the population more narrowly and used a correspondingly smaller but more significant N. For instance, in certain tables where marriage is important, we have separated the 106 unmarried women from the 139 married women and compared the latter with the 234 married men, ignoring the 13 unmarried men as too small a sample to have significance. In all cases the tables show the size of N and thus indicate whether the class is restricted. When N is less than 247 for all men or 245 for all women, it means that the no-answer category

is omitted and that percentages are based on the total number of positive replies.

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Physical Characteristics. The median age of the women in our sample was 44.5 years, of the men 42.1 years (Table 2). One year of this three-year difference results from the fact that the women took their doctorates on the average about one year later than the men (Table 5). The other two years must be the result of other selective factors which affected the returns.

The median height of the women was 5 ft. 5 in. and of the men 5 ft. 10 in. The median weight of the women was 132 lbs., of the men 164 lbs. About 35 per cent of both women and men reported themselves as "unusually robust," and about 60 per cent as "about average" in health.

TABLE 2

	Age		
BIRTH	AGE	WOMEN	MEN
Before 1890	Over 50	9.4%	8.1%
1890-1894	51-55	18.0	13.0
1895-1899	46-50	20.4	14.6
1900-1904	41-45	15.1	21.1
1905-1909	36-40	22.8	22.7
1910-1914	31-35	13.9	18.2
1915-1919	26-30	-	2.0
No answer		.4	.4
N		245	247
Median		44.5 yrs.	42.1 yrs.

About 85 per cent of these 492 persons ventured, in response to our question, to rate themselves in respect of their dominant constitutional type. Of the women, 37 per cent claimed to be chiefly ectomorphic (asthenic), 44 per cent mesomorphic (athletic); of the men, 32 per cent ectomorphic, 52 per cent mesomorphic. This difference lies in the direction of desire, that women wish to be slim and men strong; yet it is noteworthy that mesomorphy is the most frequently reported category for each sex. The fact that less than a fifth of these academics claim to be endomorphic is consistent with casual observation that pyknic psychologists are not much in evidence at meetings of the APA.

Family Background. The family background of these psychologists, while fairly heterogeneous, is above average with respect to the education of the parents and their socio-economic status. About 17 per cent of the mothers of the women and 15 per cent of the mothers of the men were college graduates, while 40 per cent of the women's fathers and 31 per cent of the men's fathers were graduated from college (Table 3). Although not many of the mothers have advanced degrees, 13 per cent of the men's fathers and 22 per cent of the women's fathers went beyond college to take a second academic degree. The parents of the women, as a group, reached a somewhat higher educational level than did the men's parents. More than twice as many of the parents of the men, as compared with the women's parents, did not finish grammar school. Almost half of the women's mothers completed high school, as compared with

TABLE 3
Highest educational level of parents

LEVEL	MOTE	ER	FATHER		
LEVEL .	Women	Men	Women	Men	
Did not finish gram- mar school	7.3%	15.4%	8.6%	18.6%	
Completed grammar school	23.7	33.6	24.5	29.6	
Completed high school.	49.8	35.2	24.9	21.1	
College graduate	14.3	14.2	18.0	17.4	
One or more graduate					
degrees	2.4	.8	22.4	13.4	
No answer	2.4	.8	1.6	_	
N	245	247	245	247	

only 35 per cent of the men's mothers. One or more advanced degrees were held by 22 per cent of the women's fathers and by only 13 per cent of the men's fathers. This difference may mean that the women needed a more favorable environment in respect of the educational status of their parents than did the men in order to achieve a PhD degree and embark on a career. It seems likely that parents with better education and the economic status that goes with a better education would more often manage to "send" their daughters as well as their sons to college and later to graduate school. Nor are there many families who would finance a PhD for a daughter when they could not afford one for a son.

These findings are reinforced by data on parental occupations (Table 4). Although the mothers of both men and women PhDs are predominantly classi-

fied as housewives, the percentage of women's mothers who have engaged in professional or semi-professional work is larger than the percentage of men's mothers. A preponderance of the fathers of both men and women PhDs are placed at the higher occupational levels; yet it is noteworthy that more of the women's fathers are in the professional and

TABLE 4
Principal occupation of parents

OCCUPATION	мотн	ER	FATHER		
OKCEPATION	Women	Men	Women	Men	
Professional	4.5%	2.8%	37.9%	25.9%	
Semiprofessional	4.1	1.6	5.3	4.9	
Self-employed	.8	1.2	16.7	20.7	
Proprietary	.8	.4	13.1	14.2	
Managerial	.8	-	15.1	9.3	
Sales work	.4	.4	4.9	4.1	
Clerical	.8	.4	1.2	2.4	
Skilled labor	.4	1.6	4.1	15.4	
Unskilled labor	-	-	.8	2.4	
Unemployed	1.2	4.1	1.6	1.6	
Housewife	84.9	87.1	4	.4	
No answer	1.2	1.2	.8	1.6	
N	245	247	245	247	

managerial classes and fewer engaged in skilled labor than is the case with the men's fathers.

Of course, neither the women or the men PhDs any longer fit the cultural pattern in which they were, on the average, reared. Each is a selected superior group, deviating farther from the mean than the family background in which its members got their start.

This PhD population has many foreign-born

parents. Of the men's fathers 26 per cent were foreign-born; of the men's mothers, 23 per cent; of the women's fathers, 19 per cent; of the women's mothers, 16 per cent. Again we see that the women had an educational and social advantage over the men in that more of their parents were fully Americanized.

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The parents were mostly of middle age at the time of birth of our respondents—the fathers of both men and women had a median age of about 34, the mothers a median age of about 29. Not many were over 40, almost none under 20. Thus they were of an age to give maximal assistance when their children could be going to college.

Development of Professional Interest. Table 5 shows the course of developing interest by our women and men in psychology as a career. The median history, if you are eventually to get a PhD, is that you get interested in psychology in your late teens or early twenties, decide to make psychology your profession when you are about 24 and then get your PhD when you are about 29. If you are a woman, your interest comes a little earlier and your degree a little later than if you are a man, but there is not a great deal of difference.

The women are more widely dispersed than the men in respect of the age at which they obtained the PhD. More women than men receive the PhD at the ages of 20-24 and also over 34. In the quinquennium 25-29, the PhD is given to 45 per cent of the men and to only 33 per cent of the women. The early female PhDs may result from the fact that women are apt to depend on parents for educational support longer than are men, and the late female

TABLE 5

Early determination of interest in psychology

AGE	AGE AT TIME OF FIRST INTEREST IN PSYCHOLOGY			HOICE OF PSYCHOLOGY ROPESSION	AGE AT WHICH PHD WAS OBTAINED		
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	
Under 20	52.2%	40.1%	16.3%	8.9%	.4%	-%	
20-24	32.6	44.1	44.5	51.4	22.8	19.8	
25-29	9.0	12.6	20.4	30.4	33.0	44.6	
30-34	3.7	. 2.4	10.2	6.5	20.8	20.3	
Over 34	1.6	4	6.9	2.8	21.6	12.2	
Uncertain	8	.4	1.6	-	.8	2.4	
V	245	247	245	247	245	247 :	
Median	Under 20 yrs.	21.1 yrs.	23.7 yrs.	24.0 yrs.	29.9 vrs.	29.2 yrs.	

PhDs probably result from the retardation of professional progress by marriage and children.

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Slightly more than two-thirds of both our groups (67 per cent of the women and 70 per cent of the men) hold an AM or MS degree in addition to the PhD. Only 2 women and 4 men also hold the MD degree.

Table 6 makes an attempt to get at some of the factors influencing the choice of psychology as a career. Interest in psychology, science, research and people—in that order—are given as the primary determinants. Such replies fail, however, to get below the surface. We had expected to find some differentiation between men and women in the cate-

TABLE 6
Factors influencing choice of psychology as a career

	WOMEN	MEN
Interest in subject matter	80.0%	82.2%
Interest in science	53.9	60.8
Interest in research	55.1	56.7
Interest in people	63.2	51.8
Influence of parents, teachers, or ad-		
visers	49.0	41.3
Interest in social problems	40.4	36.9
Interest in solving personal problems	25.7	27.1
Desire to serve humanity	27.7	26.7
Prospect of professional advancement	17.1	22.7
Prospective employment opportunities.	21.2	16.2
Expectation of personal prestige	11.4	15.8
Prospect of increased earnings	8.6	10.5
Other	17.1	12.6
N	245	247

gories near the bottom of the table, such as a difference in the desire to serve society or in the need for making a satisfactory living, but the table shows no such differences.

Attitudes toward Training. One hears complaints enough about the inadequacy of graduate training. The constant effort of psychologists to improve professional training is in itself such a complaint. If we expected in Table 7 to find our respondents depreciating their own training, we were destined to be disappointed. Only about 6 per cent of our group were ready to admit the inadequacy of their own PhDs. Most respondents reported their training as "very satisfactory" or "fairly satisfactory," whereas less than a quarter found the training "satisfactory but too narrow."

The real state of affairs appears, however, in Table 8. The striking feature of these returns is that the respondents showed that they liked what training they had had but wished they had had more. The table represents 408 statements that the subjects named had been given too much emphasis in training as compared with 1,848 statements that the stated subjects had been given too little emphasis. It is natural for professional persons to wish that they had had more or better training, and this wish must be especially in evidence when new fields of professional activity are opening up, as they are in psychology at the present time.

The women, it will be seen, want more training in clinical techniques, in personnel procedures, in soci-

TABLE 7
General evaluation of graduate training in psychology

	WOMEN	MEN
Very satisfactory preparation for pro- fessional work	42.8%	38.1%
Fairly adequate in scope and quality of instruction	24.4	34.8
Satisfactory instruction but too narrow in scope.	25.3	20.7
Satisfactory coverage but rather poor instruction.	2.9	3.2
Decidedly inadequate preparation for		
professional work	3.3	2.8
Other	10.6	6.5
No answer	_	.4
N	245	247

ology and anthropology, more practical field work and internships. The men wish they had more of all these subjects, and also stress statistics and social psychology. The women want more mathematics. Statistics is now clearly recognized as an essential tool of the applied psychologist and the women, as well as the men, want this kind of training. They may not find it easy, but they want it. In Table 8 there is no topic listed in which increased emphasis was not wanted by at least one per cent of the respondents, and there was no topic thought to have been emphasized too much by more than 17 per cent of the respondents. All knowledge is popular, but practical knowledge is especially desired.

The unpopular topics—those which get more votes for reduction than for increase—are the seven subjects listed at the bottom of Table 8. German is

especially unpopular. That is because it is now used in scientific psychology much less than was the case only fifteen years ago, and it is used almost not at all by most applied psychologists. For similar reasons all required training in foreign languages tends nowadays to be disliked. The objection to laboratory courses and to experimental psychology shows the

TABLE 8

Specific evaluation of graduate training in psychology

RIELD	TOO I	HASIS		ITTLE IASIS
	Women	Men	Women	Men
Practical field work	-%	.8%	35.5%	37.39
Clinical techniques	-	1.2	42.0	36.0
Mathematics	1.2	2.0	15.1	29.6
Sociology and anthropology	.4	.4	24.5	29.6
Personnel procedures	-	-	24.9	28.8
Internship	_	.8	29.0	27.5
Statistics	4.9	3.6	14.7	24.7
Social psychology	-	.8	13.5	21.5
Test construction	1.2	1.6	14.3	19.0
Biology	.8	1.6	18.8	18.2
Industrial psychology	.4	.8	13.9	16.6
Physiology and neurology	1.6	8.9	23.7	15.0
Abnormal psychology	1.2	.4	12.6	14.6
Philosophy	2.0	5.3	6.9	13.0
Natural science	-	.4	10.6	11.7
Physiological psychology	3.3	7.3	9.8	9.7
Test administration	1.2	2.8	7.3	6.9
Laboratory research	1.2	6.1	4.1	6.1
Experimental psychology	6.9	8.9	4.9	6.1
Systematic psychology	4.1	11.3	4.9	5.3
German	8.2	16.6	1.6	4.9
History of psychology	3.3	6.9	3.3	4.5
Laboratory drill	4.9	7.7	4.1	4.1
Other foreign languages	4.9	13.0	2.9	2.8
Other	2.9	1.6	6.9	8.1
N	245	247	245	247

current trend away from the laboratory to the clinic and the personnel office. The dislike of history of psychology and of systematic psychology corresponds with the migration of modern psychology away from the more conversational techniques of the older, pedantic, philosophical psychology toward experimental psychology to a considerable extent, and toward applied psychology to an even greater extent.

Prejudice and Employment. One section of our questionnaire dealt with reasons for the failure of our respondents to obtain desired employment. Except with respect to sex, they seem not to have experienced much "unfair discrimination" based on factors unrelated to proficiency in the job. An employer is justified in rejecting the less competent candidate, the inexperienced or insufficiently trained person. The prejudice against youth is not necessarily wrong, nor is the prejudice against advanced age.

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There were 22 men and 11 women who reported believing that they had lost appointments because of their religion, and to these we might add—with the anti-Semitic prejudice in mind—the 5 men and 3 women who checked nationality or race as the reason. That gives 41 persons in 492 (8 per cent). That number is smaller than we expected, but we do not know how many of our PhDs would ordinarily be considered to be "Jews." The category is somewhat indefinite.

Only 11 of the 492 persons reported losing appointments because of political views or activities.

Sex remains the great prejudice. The sort of sex not to be if you want a good job is female—at least that is what both men and women believe. The men report only a trace of sex prejudice against them (1 man in 247), but 61 of the 245 women think that they have at some time failed of receiving a desired appointment because they were women. On the other hand, we shall see presently that there are situations in which it helps professionally to be female.

Professional Employment. We asked our respondents to check a list of ten methods of getting new jobs, as to which they had found very helpful and which of little or no help. These results support the common belief. Psychologists of both sexes ordinarily depend on the recommendations of professors, friends, and departments to get new jobs, jobs for which they have not previously applied. They make little use as yet of employment agencies or placement bureaus.

Almost half the women and over a third of the men found their first paid employment in the field of psychology. The others worked from one to 12 years in other kinds of work. The median period of gainful employment before obtaining a job in psychology was 2.1 years for the men, but less than one year for the women.

We also asked our respondents to indicate how

many years of full-time employment they had had in psychological work, and how many years of part-time work (Table 9). The median values are 13.0 years of full-time employment for the men, 10.7 years for the women; 2.5 years of part-time employment for the men, 3.2 years for the women. We find these sex differences less than we had expected. Married women who now have only part-time positions often had some years of full-time professional work in premarital or preparental days.

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The present status of the members of our sample in respect of paid employment is shown in Table 10. One woman in five has, in spite of a PhD in psychology, no paid employment in psychology. One man in forty with a PhD in psychology is not being paid as a psychologist. Only 71 per cent of the men and 59 per cent of the women have full-time jobs in psychology. Very many persons of both sexes combine part-time work in psychology with part-time work in something else.

The last row of Table 10 shows the percentage of the total time of the women respondents which they spend in psychological work and in nonpsychological. It gives also the comparable figures for the men. Altogether 237 men psychologists are spending 82 per cent of their time on psychology, whereas 234 women psychologists are spending only 65 per cent of their total time on psychology. This finding is not too good a showing for the women, who thus appear to make only a 65 per cent return on their training. It is also a poorer showing for the men than we had expected.

In general, what the men fail to do in psychological work they make up in other work. It is approximately legitimate to add the percentages from the two halves of Table 10 to find that these men have paid employment for 98 per cent and the women for 72 per cent of their total time. Such a finding does not, of course, mean that the women are idle 28 per cent of the time. Much of their unpaid work is doubtless socially useful (as housewife and mother) and may even depend on psychological training. Nevertheless this figure is to be contrasted with the finding of Lowther and Downes (4) that 90 per cent of women medically trained remain active in medical work.

Of the persons employed in nonpsychological work, 17 per cent of the women and 12 per cent of the men said that they would, if practicable, like to return to psychological work, whereas only 6 per cent of the men and 3 per cent of the women reported themselves as satisfied with their nonpsychological work. Most of the members of both groups were, however, uncertain of these answers or did not reply to the questions. A great many of the persons of both sexes who did reply reported that their psychological

TABLE 9

Number of years employment in full-time and part-time
psychological work

YEARS	FULL-TIME	EMPLOYMENT	PART-TIME EMPLOYMEN		
	Women	Men	Women	Men	
None	9.0%	5.0%	25.2%	34.1%	
1-2	8.1	1.6	22.0	21.9	
3-4	6.4	5.0	24.3	22.8	
5-8	19.6	16.8	12.4	12.6	
9-12	16.6	21.8	4.2	2.2	
13-15	11.4	13.2	3.6	1.7	
16-20	17.4	16.8	4.6	3.0	
21-25	9.4	15.2	3.3	1.3	
26 or more	2.1	4.4	.4	.4	
N	235	243	218	229	
Median	10.7 yrs.	13.0 vrs.	3.2 vrs.	2.5 vrs.	

TABLE 10
Present paid employment status

TIME	PSYCHOL		NON-PSYCHOLOGICAL WORK		
	Women	Men	Women	Men	
None	20.6%	2.5%	39.6%	74.8%	
0 up to 1	7.3	4.2	14.1	4.4	
1 up to 1	3.9	8.8	14.1	2.2	
1 up to 1	5.6	4.6	11.4	8.8	
3 up to full	4.3	8.0	10.6	7.7	
Full	58.9	71.4	10.6	4.4	
NPer cent of total time of	234	237	114	93	
all the women or all the men	65.0	82.2	6.7	15.8	

training had helped them "considerably" in their nonpsychological work. A few said that it has helped them "predominantly," and still fewer said "very little." These persons, in general, believe that the training has been good for them, as would seem likely, since a PhD carries prestige and a title, no matter in what subject it was obtained.

What these persons have been receiving in professional compensation is shown in Tables 11, 12, and 13

Table 11 gives the overall results. It shows the distribution of maximal salaries received in any year by the women and the men in each of four age periods. The sizes of N vary, chiefly because young people can make no statements about what their salaries will be at older ages. The table shows that the chances of getting a high salary increase with age are greater for men than for women. The ratios of the median values indicate that these women have received about three-fourths as much compensation as the men.

older people many years ago when salaries generally were lower than they are today. (4) And finally, besides the depreciation of the dollar through the years, there is the fact that maximal salaries during the last decennium were increased by the war situation, in which youth was more in demand than usual and young men in particular got higher salaries than they would normally have received.

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Table 12 takes account of these last two factors—dollar depreciation and high pay for young men during the war. It shows salaries for the respondents at the present time, that is to say, it shows the maximal annual salary during the decennium in which the respondent's present age lies. The

TABLE 11

Maximal professional salars in any one year during stated age periods

SALARY	UNDI	ER 30	30-	-39	40	1-49	50 &	OVER
SALARI	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
Less than \$1,500	19.8%	10.8%	6.9%	.4%	2.3%	-%	7.2%	-%
\$1,500 to \$1,999	27.0	14.4	7.4	.4	2.3	.7	1.8	-
\$2,000 to \$2,499	25.7	26.1	15.2	3.4	9.8	1.5	3.6	4.0
\$2,500 to \$2,999	18.0	20.7	21.6	9.7	12.8	1.5	9.0	4.0
\$3,000 to \$3,999	7.7	20.3	29.4	30.7	30.8	20.4	30.6	8.0
\$4,000 to \$4,999	.9	6.3	11.5	21.8	30.0	29.9	28.8	26.0
\$5,000 to \$6,999	-	1.8	6.0	25.2	9.8	29.9	21.6	32.0
\$7,000 to \$9,999	-	.4	.9	5.5	.8	11.7	1.8	24.0
\$10,000 to \$14,999	-	-	.5	1.7	1.5	2.9	1.8	2.0
\$15,000 to \$19,999	-	-	-	.4	-	1.5	-	-
N	220	224	216	236	133	137	55	50
Median	\$2053	\$2485	\$2970	\$4230	\$3744	\$4622	\$3912	\$5308
Ratio (W/M)	.82	26	.7	02	.7	169	.7	137

There are four factors which affect the data of Table 11 of which it does not take account. (1) There is degree of employment. We ought to separate persons employed full-time from those employed part-time, since more women than men have low salaries because they work only part-time. (2) We ought also to consider marriage. (We may ignore the 13 unmarried men.) With women, marriage favors part-time employment. Do married women with full-time employment make more or less money than unmarried women with full-time employment? (3) Then there is the depreciation of the dollar during the years covered by this study. Table 11 exaggerates the effect of age upon salary, because the younger age brackets include the salaries of the

"under-30" category drops out because there were only five respondents still so young at the time of answering the questionnaire. The median salaries are higher than in Table 11. That, we think, is due to dollar depreciation. Salaries are the same for men in their thirties as for men in their forties. That, we think, is the effect of the war. Under ordinary conditions, the culture and group morale require that professional salary increase with age, even after ability has ceased to increase. Because of the war, these highly paid men in their thirties may, in their forties, get less increase than their morale needs. The women's medians in Table 12 are still only three-fourths as large as the men's or less, but these data still contain the returns of married and unmar-

ried respondents for both full-time and part-time employment.

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Table 13 shows the median maximal salaries for persons who had full-time employment in psychology at the time of making the statement about salaries. If they were fully employed then, it is likely that most of them had been fully employed previously. The table is arranged by age-groups, by sex and by marriage. It does not correct for dollar depreciation or for war increases. It shows salaries increasing with age for all three groups—married women, unmarried women, married men. The married women seem to earn a little less at psychology than the unmarried women, who in turn earn less than the

by research and writing in which they deal with larger generalizations and not with case histories. This difference between the sexes shows up in studies made with interest inventories. See Terman and Miles  $(\delta)$ . The difference may lie wholly in the culture, although some writers, such as Scheinfeld (5), do not think so.

Attitudes toward Professional Work. "If you had your life to live over again would you choose psychology as a career? Would you spend the time, money, and effort necessary to obtain a PhD in psychology?" More than two-thirds of the women and men say Yes to the first question, and three-fourths of them say Yes to the second. See Table 14. Less than a tenth

TABLE 12

Maximal professional salary received in any one year during the age-decennium which includes the respondent's age in 1945

SALARY	30-	-39	40-49		50 & OVER	
5.44.81	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
Less than \$1,500	7.5%	1.0%	2.6%	-%	7.4%	-%
\$1,500 to \$1,999	5.0	_	1.3	-	1.9	_
\$2,000 to \$2,499	20.0	2.0	11.7	_	3.7	4.2
\$2,500 to \$2,999	17.5	1.0	10.4	_	9.3	4.2
\$3,000 to \$3,999	27.5	22.2	27.3	17.6	31.5	8.5
\$4,000 to \$4,999	12.5	23.2	33.8	31.6	22.2	25.4
\$5,000 to \$6,999	7.5	39.4	10.4	31.6	20.4	29.7
\$7,000 to \$9,999	2.5	7.1	1.3	11.7	1.9	25.4
\$10,000 to \$14,999	-	3.0	1.3	4.7	1.9	2.1
\$15,000 to \$19,999	- 1	1.0	-	2.3	-	_
у	80	99	77	85	54	50
Median	\$2999	\$5026	\$3881	\$5036	\$3882	\$5500
Ratio (W/M)	.59	97	.7	71	.70	06

men, practically all of whom are married. The sexratios for the median salaries are of the order of 3:4 or 4:5.

That women psychologists, on the average, when fully employed, whether married or unmarried, make about 20 to 40 per cent less than the men, from \$1,000 to \$2,000 a year less, is not surprising. (Cf. 2, p. 78.) It is possible, however, that a great part of this difference derives, not from the fact that women are paid less than men in psychological work, but from the fact that women's work in psychology is less well paid than men's work. The individualistic personalistic work, that women on the whole do well and seem to like to do, does not lead readily to renown, whereas men usually achieve eminence

of them say No. There is little difference between the replies of the two sexes, although the men seem a little surer than the women about going in for psychology again in their next incarnation.

"To what extent do you feel that your work in psychology has, on the whole, fulfilled your expectations?" another of our questions asked. About half of both the women and the men replied that their expectations had been fulfilled, whereas more than a third said that work in psychology is more satisfying than they had expected. Only a tenth expressed disappointment. Two-thirds of each sex, in replying to another question, indicated that training in psychology had "considerably" contributed to their personal individual adjustment. Thus it

TABLE 13

Median maximal professional salary received in any one year during stated age periods for persons employed full time in psychology at the time of making the statement

The ratios are between the medians of successive columns

AGE AT WHICH SALARY WAS RECEIVED	Married Women	Unmarried Women	Married Men
Under 30			-
Median	\$2115	\$2027	\$2558
N	(54)	(74)	(147)
Ratio	1.0	043 .7	92
30-39			
Median	3055	3333	4312
N	(56)	(74)	(155)
Ratio	.9	217 .7	73
40-49			
Median	3375	4026	5000
N	(35)	(55)	(87)
Ratio	.8	.8	05
50 & over			
Median	4167	4250	5142
N	(13)	(25)	(29)
Ratio	.5	.8. 080	27

TABLE 14

Acceptability of psychology as a career

If you had your life to live over again, would you . . .

	CHOOSE PSY AS A CAI		SPEND THE TIME, MONEY, AND EFFORT NECESSARY TO OBTAIN A PHD DEGREE IN PSYCHOLOGY?		
	Women	Men	Women	Men	
Yes	72.6%	67.6%	75.9%	77.0%	
No	10.6	7.7	8.2	6.1	
Uncertain	15.9	23.9	14.7	16.6	
No answer	.8	.8	1.2	.4	
N	245	247	245	247	

TABLE 15
Attitude toward job

WOMEN	MEN
41.6%	37.7%
41.6	41.7
4.9	4.9
3.7	4.9
4.9	1.6
4.5	.8
245	247
	41.6% 41.6 4.9 3.7 4.9 4.5

appears that, even among the women, there is not a great deal of explicit professional dissatisfaction. As a matter of fact, general dissatisfaction is hardly to be expected. To indicate dislike of one's basic work is almost to confess failure. Moreover, people get to like what they do continuously. This conclusion appeared also in our previous paper (2, pp. 74–76).

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Table 15 deals with the psychologists' attitudes toward their jobs. They show more discontent with the job than with the profession, because the job, of course, more readily admits of being changed. There is not much sex difference evident in this table.

TABLE 16
Attitude toward professional advancement

,	WOMEN	MEN
Content to hold present job without promotion or salary increase until retirement.	14.3%	8.9%
Although now at probable maximal posi- tion and salary, feel capable of holding and would like position at higher level	10.2	17.8
Reasonable expectation of promotion and increased salary in present work	43.7	65.6
Ready for promotion and will not be content until it is received	4.1	8.1
discontented	2.0	4.5
isfiedOther.	2.0	1.2 8.5
No answer	12.6	2.0
N	245	247

About four out of ten respondents are "satisfied," another four "like the job but are not entirely satisfied," whereas one in ten is definitely dissatisfied or would like to change.

Do these psychologists expect advancement? See Table 16. There is a sex difference here. More women than men seem content to hold their present jobs without promotion, fewer women say they expect advancement or feel capable of assuming more responsibility. On the other hand, nearly half of the women, two-thirds of the men, expect promotion and salary increases. Only 8 per cent of the women, 14 per cent of the men, express definite dissatisfaction.

Table 17 throws more light on this problem. Women have more vital outside interests than do men. A fifth of the men, but only a tenth of the women, report that their professional work is their major source of satisfaction. Of the men, 42 per cent say that their work contributes more satisfaction than any other of their concerns, whereas only 27 per cent of the women make this response. We see further that 29 per cent of the women report that other interests are more important to them than their professional work. For the men this percentage is less than 2. These women have made their adjustment in life, and a considerable part of their activities lies outside the profession. Presumably the greater portion of this outside interest is centered in the home.

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We have still other data, not tabulated here, that support this view. Of the women 12 per cent report having given up professional work to assume "personal obligations"; of the men, only 1 per cent. Of the women 12 per cent said that they "regretted" giving up professional work and would like to resume part-time activity in psychology. There is, then, this faint protest, but it is not vociferous. How could it be? The mother, who now looks after her own children instead of administering tests to other mothers' children, in general accepts the pattern which the culture sets her, regretting a little but not protesting too much. There are a few exceptions, but usually successful adjustment to reality means that you accept what you can not change and also that you grow to like it. These psychologists, on the whole, know how to take their own therapy.

Effect of Sex on Career. Does being a woman interfere with a career as a professional psychologist? Yes. See Table 18. Both the men and the women think so. As the percentages diminish in the column for the men, they increase in the column for the women. It is easier for the men to obtain work. They earn more. It is easier for them to get their work done and they get promoted more readily. The fifth to the tenth items in the table all show the disadvantages under which the women work, whereas the men almost unanimously disclaim these disadvantages for themselves. The fact that the women are not, in general, protesting does not mean that they have no grounds for discontent. They have grounds, these grounds. And those champions who complain on their behalf are right

insofar as equality of opportunity and equal rewards for equal services are the demands they make. On the other hand, it is clear that the women who find satisfaction outside the profession, in marriage and the home, are performing a social service by their contentment. The culture is changing slowly in

TABLE 17
Satisfaction derived from professional work as compared with other interests

	WOMEN	MEN
Professional work is major source	10.6%	19.0%
Work contributes more than any other		
interest	26.9	42.1
Work and other interests evenly balanced.	38.3	35.6
Work contributes less than other interests.	28.9	1.6
Other interests are major source	-	.4
Prefer to give up work in favor of other		
interests	.8	.4
Other	3.7	.8
No answer	19.6	3.2
N	245	247

TABLE 18
Effect of sex on professional career

The fact that I am a man (woman) has, in my opinion, affected my career in the following ways:

	WOMEN	MEN
Easier to obtain desired work	9.4%	80.6%
Increased earning capacity	.8	69.7
Easier to perform professional duties	9.8	63.2
Facilitated promotion	1.2	48.2
Little or no effect	25.3	12.2
Harder to perform professional duties	18.8	.8
Necessitated a change in vocational plans.	11.0	.4
Harder to obtain desired work	35.9	.4
Chief factor in the abandonment of career.	10.6	-
Retarded or blocked promotion	21.2	-
Decreased earning capacity	51.8	-
Other	14.3	1.6
N	245	247

these respects, and too rapid a change would create disequilibrium in unexpected places.

It is interesting to note, on the other side of this question, that Table 18 shows a fourth of the women saying that their sex has made it easier for them to obtain desired work. Who are these women?

Presumably the women who have the 'women's jobs' in psychology—the jobs in the schools, educational systems, clinics, guidance centers, hospitals, and custodial institutions (2, p. 74). There are many positions in which an employer wants a woman because of her feminine interests or because of the way in which other people respond to a female stereotype. It is true that he does not pay her more than he would pay a man, in spite of the fact that he may

TABLE 19
Marriage: present status

	WOMEN	MEN
Single	43.2%	5.3%
Married	46.9	92.7
Divorced	5.3	1.6
Widowed	4.5	.4
N	245	247

TABLE 20 Attitude toward present marriage

	FULL-TIME EMPLOYMENT		LESS THAN FULL- TIME EMPLYOMENT	
	Married women	Married men	Married women	Married men
Well satisfied and enthusiastic	72.6%	67.3%	71.5%	59.0%
Fairly well satisfied	6.8	24.4	19.4	29.5
Satisfactions balance dis- satisfactions	6.8	7.3	11.9	6.6
Dissatisfied, but do not wish divorce	6.8	2.6	_	3.3
Dissatisfied and would like				
divorce	2.3	.7	-	-
Other	4.5	.7	-	1.6
N	44	152	67	61

expect her to do the work better than a man. The individual employer is either in competitive business or he is a fiduciary, and in either case he must pay as little as possible. The remedy for this discrepancy lies in a slow change of cultural pattern, not in individual generosity.

Relation of Marriage and Children to Career. Of the 247 men, only 13 were unmarried, 229 were married, 4 were divorced and 1 widowed. Of the 245 women, 106 were unmarried, 115 married, 13 divorced and 11 widowed. (See Table 19.) In other words, almost all of the men but only half of the women are married. There are, of course, not enough husbands to go around in civilized countries, and more persons are born to be widows than widowers. See Scheinfeld (5, pp. 185–198). On the other hand, since the supply of living husbands is not yet down to one-half, it must be that some women choose a career in preference to marriage or are chosen for it.

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Divorce is not very common. Only 26 men and 21 women have been divorced, three of them twice, none of them thrice. Of the 26 divorcés, 22 had remarried by the time the questionnaire arrived. Of the 21 divorcées, only 8 had remarried when they answered the questions.

What about children? The 139 married women have 183 children, 1.32 apiece. Forty-nine of these women have no children; 26 have one; 45, two; 11, three; 6, four; and 2 have five children. The 234 married men have 393 children, 1.68 apiece. Forty of the men have no children; 65 have one; 80, two; 35, three; 9, four; 4, five; and one man has seven children.

That is the objective picture of these marriages. We sought, however, to probe its subjective side. Table 20 shows about two-thirds of both women and men reporting that they are "well satisfied with and enthusiastic about" their marriages, about 90 per cent that they are at least "fairly well satisfied." The men are a little more enthusiastic than the women, and the women leave the question unanswered oftener. On its face, this is an optimistic picture, but the replies may seem a little too conventional. We tried to provide opportunity for complaint by presenting the respondents with a check list of 25 reasons for an "unhappy marriage." All the items except racial difference got some checks; none got many. The most common complaint was "temperamental incompatibility," checked by 24 men and 19 women. Only 59 men and 16 women admitted to any "marital unhappiness," and only half of them reported it as "chronic."

We get the same conventional answers when we ask whether the spouse helps the professional career. Half of the married women and a third of the married men report their spouses as enthusiastically supporting their professional work. Others check lesser degrees of interest and help. There is very little

disinterestedness, disapproval or interference reported from spouses of either sex.

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We also asked the direct question: Does marriage help a professional career? Table 21 gives the answers. Consider first the married persons who have full-time jobs in psychology. One such man in seven regards his marriage as professionally indispensable, and three men in four say that marriage is definitely a professional asset. For the men marriage forms the proper background for a career. The women report differently. Only half as many women as men indicate that marriage has definitely been for them a professional asset, whereas a quarter of the women say that it has "made the pursuit of a career more difficult." Perhaps the wonder is that more women claim to have been aided professionally by their marriages than claim to have been hindered. That is the report of these women with full-time jobs in psychology.

The other half of Table 21 shows a greater effect of marriage on careers for women who are not fully employed in psychological work. The married men with only part-time work in psychology do not differ greatly in these returns from the men with full-time psychological employment. In no case is marriage reported as the reason for a male PhD's abandoning his career. On the other hand, a quarter of the married women with part-time work in psychology report abandoning their careers on account of marriage. An additional third say that marriage has made their careers more difficult. Only a fifth of the women in this category find that marriage has helped them professionally. Undoubtedly, the reason most of these women are working only part of the time is that marriage and career have been in

In general, combining the two halves of Table 21, we note that 72 per cent of the married men find marriage a professional asset, whereas on'y 5 per cent find it a hindrance. Of the married women, 28 per cent find marriage a professional asset and 34 per cent find it a hindrance or even a cause of abandoning a career. It is reassuring to hear that marriage may help a woman in a career in psychology, for it was to be expected that woman's work in psychology might often be done better by a wife or a mother. Moreover, the data for women's satisfaction with their marriages indicate that not all women who find their careers hindered by their marriages are willing

to report their marriages as other than satisfactory or even satisfying.

Children interfere with a woman's career even more than marriage. See Table 22. The discussion of this table would follow the lines of the discussion

TABLE 21
Effect of marriage on professional career

	FULL-TIME EMPLOYMENT		LESS THAN FULL TIME EMPLOYMEN	
	Married women	Married men	Married women	Married men
Indispensable factor in pro- fessional achievement Definitely an asset	5.1% 33.8	13.4% 59.8	4.0%	8.8%
Advantages balanced dis- advantages	15.2	6.7	16.0	5.9
Little or no effect	20.3	15.9	4.0	26.5
more difficult	27.0	6.1	31.9	1.5
donment of career	-	-	23.9	_
Other	8.5	1.8	22.6	5.9
N	59	163	75	68

TABLE 22

Effect of children of respondent on professional career

	FULL-TIME EMPLOYMENT		LESS THAN PULL- TIME EMPLOYMENT	
	Mothers	Fathers	Mothers	Fathers
Major factor in profes- sional achievement	9.4%	3.0%	7.3%	-%
Definitely an asset	28.2	42.2	14.6	39.7
Advantages balanced dis- advantages	12.5 9.4	14.1 41.4	7.3 7.3	9.5 41.6
Definitely made pursuit of career more difficult Chief factor in the aban-	47.0	5.2	41.9	7.6
donment of career	3.1	_	34.6	
Other	9.4	3.0	20.0	7.6
N	32	135	55	53

of Table 21, except that the percentages of disadvantage for women are higher. If the two halves of the table are combined, we discover that 25 per cent of the mothers report their children as professional assets, and that 60 per cent of the mothers report their children as professional liabilities. Forty per

cent of the fathers think of their offspring as assets; only 5 per cent think of them as professional liabilities.

If we compare marriage and children as professional assets and liabilities, we find that marriage and children are about equal as assets for women and as liabilities for men. Marriage (72%) is a greater asset for men than are children (29%). Children (60%) are a greater liability for women than is marriage (34%). That all makes sense. The men are helped professionally by the social status of marriage and in that respect a wife is more important than children. The women are helped, when they are helped, by their experience with children. It is presumably the wives who are mothers who most often find marriage advantageous pro-

of their holding office. The women averaged attendance at 3.1 meetings a year, the men at 3.0.

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Table 23 enquires into the amount of professional reading for which our respondents find time. The table gives the distributions, but the crucial items are the average numbers of hours per week given to reading. The generalizations from the table are obvious. The men read more than the unmarried women, who read more than the married women. Men and women with full-time professional employment in psychology read more professional literature than do the others who have less than full-time employment in the field. It is to be expected that persons with part-time work in the profession would do less professional reading than persons with full-time employment. It might also be expected that

TABLE 23

Hours per week spent in professional reading

HOURS		FULL-TIME EMPLOYMENT		LESS THAN FULL-TIME EMPLOYMENT		
HOURS	Married women	Unmarried women	Married men	Married women	Unmarried women	Married mer
None	1.7%	2.6%	1.9%	13.9%	4.4%	4.4%
1- 3	41.3	27.7	19.2	41.7	26.1	33.8
4-6	27.5	35.6	37.8	25.0	47.9	25.0
7-9	10.3	11.9	18.0	11.1	8.7	14.7
10-12	13.8	14.5	12.4	4.2	4.4	11.8
13-15	1.7	2.6	6.2	4.2	8.7	7.4
16-18	1.7	2.6	1.2	_	_	_
More than 18	1.7	2.6	3.7	_		2.9
N	58	76	162	72	23	68
Average	5.4 hrs.	6.2 hrs.	6.9 hrs.	4.0 hrs.	5.2 hrs.	6.0 hrs.

fessionally. On the other hand, it is clear that the careers of women are balked to a considerable degree by the responsibilities of childless marriage and even more by motherhood.

Professional Activities Outside of the Job. There is little sex difference in the degree to which men and women join professional organizations. Six per cent of the women belong to no organization, 2 per cent of the men. Seventeen per cent of the women belong to "more than six professional societies," 14 per cent of the men. The men belong on the average to 4.4 different societies, the women on the average to 4.6. The men have averaged 1.2 "offices or committee chairmanships during the last three years," and the women have also averaged 1.2. There is no evidence of discrimination against women in respect

married women in both these categories would find less time for reading than would unmarried women. We have already recognized the woman's conflict between marriage and career; reading would suffer when pressure for time is great. But why do the unmarried women in both of these employment categories consistently read less than the men, only about 90 per cent as much? It seems possible to us that we are here again in the presence of a basic difference, that 'women's work' in psychology involves less time spent on technical reading than does 'men's work.' We shall return to this point in a moment after we have examined the sex differences in respect of research and writing.

Table 24 shows the hours per week spent in professional research and writing. For persons with full-

time employment in psychology there is no difference in the average number of hours which the married and the unmarried women spend in research and writing, but there is a large difference between the women and the men. The men spend almost twice as much time in this way as do the women. These relations are not so clear for persons in part-time employment, who spend altogether much less time in research and writing. The men, it seems, are the researchers and writers, the women the practitioners.

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If there are twice as many men as women in the profession and the men average twice as much research as the women, then the men would do four-fifths of the research and writing. We wonder if a check of the professional literature would substantiate this conclusion. It well might, but it would

research is usually directed at generalization and that men, therefore, become more readily involved in it. If you do much research, you learn to write about it. To do research or to write requires that you read professionally. When you have learned to write you may begin to read and write about other persons' researches. Research and writing lead to renown, and renown leads to increased income.

Activities Outside of the Profession. We come now to domestic activities and personal involvement in family affairs. Table 25 shows how much time is spent on such activities and interests. The women, of course, give more time than the men to their families and to domestic work. The women average 14.1 hours a week (and that figure includes the unfmarried women) and the men 10.1 hours a week.

TABLE 24

Hours per week spent in professional research and writing

HOURS	FULL-TIME EMPLOYMENT			LESS THAN FULL-TIME EMPLOYMENT			
nocas	Married women	Unmarried women	Married men	Married women	Unmarried women	Married men	
None	45.5%	33.8%	13.2%	54.3%	52.2%	17.9%	
1-3	22.8	31.1	29.6	17.2	26.1	40.2	
4-6	12.3	18.9	13.2	12.9	8.7	23.8	
7-9	8.8	8.1	17.0	7.2	4.4	6.0	
10-12	5.3	2.7	13.9	_	8.7	8.9	
13-15	1.8	2.7	5.0	5.7	_	3.0	
16-18	_	2.7	3.2	2.9		contin	
More than 18	3.5	-	4.4	_	_	_	
N	57	74	158	70	23	67	
Average	3.3 hrs.	3.3 hrs.	6.3 hrs.	2.9 hrs.	2.3 hrs.	3.9 hrs.	

be difficult to make, for the sex of an author is not always apparent.

It is natural that reading, research, and writing should be associated. You have to read to do research and to write about it. Conversely, reading suggests research and sometimes stimulates writing. The unexpected item here is that women seem to do less research and to write less in proportion to their reading than do men. It may be that they assimilate without as great an urge to do something about what they learn. We hear that men are aggressive and women complacent, yet we must be careful about drawing that trite conclusion from our inadequate data.

A plausible hypothesis is that women on the whole are less prone to generalization than are men, that their work is often clinical or particularistic, that

Just what do the women do as domestic activities, and what do the men do? Table 26 carries that answer. Mostly the women are engaged in general housework, after which come social entertaining. household and family shopping, family recreation, sewing and mending, child training and guidance, and so on through eight other categories of the check list of Table 26. That is a normal picture of what is supposed to be woman's work, her extraprofessional work. The domestic activities of the men are maintenance of property, family recreation, social entertaining, child training and guidance, general housework, and three other items. There are 46 men among the 247 who claim to do some general housework ("cleaning, preparation of meals, laundry, etc."). There are no men who regularly sew and mend. It is interesting that the men do

so many domestic things, even though many of the items in their list are on the gayer side of the family's responsibilities. The men are not, of course, so domestic as the women.

TABLE 25

Hours per week spent in familial or domestic activities and recreational activities

HOURS		R DOMESTIC	RECREATIONAL ACTIVITIES	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
None	4.3%	2.9%	1.7%	.8%
1-3	6.5	7.6	16.4	20.5
4-6	6.5	16.8	20.6	32.4
7-9	10.3	16.4	21.8	17.2
10-12	11.6	17.6	20.6	16.0 •
13-15	11.2	15.5	9.7	7.4
16-18	6.5	8.0	5.5	1.6
More than 18	44.3	14.3	2.9	4.1
N	235	236	236	242
Average	14.1 hrs.	10.6 hrs.	7.3 hrs.	8.2 hrs.

TABLE 26

Domestic activities in which three or more hours per week are spent

	WOMEN	MEN
Maintenance of property	26.1%	62.0%
Family recreation	42.8	53.5
Social entertaining	54.7	41.7
Child training and guidance	29.4	23.9
General housework	79.2	18.6
Religious activities	14.3	15.4
Physical care of children	24.5	15.0
Household and family shopping	52.2	11.3
Household finances	11.4	4.1
Special problems of children	10.2	2.8
Personal shopping	14.3	2.8
Planning of household routines	22.3	1.2
Home nursing	1.6	.4
Supervision of domestic help	19.2	_
Sewing, mending, etc	29.8	-
Other	7.8	5.3
N	245	247

The right half of Table 25 gives data about time spent in recreation. Actually not much sex difference is demonstrable here. The men average about 8 hours a week and the women about 7. We also asked the respondents about the days per year normally spent on vaction. The average for the

men was 23, for the women 30-three weeks for men and a month for women. Psychology has been primarily an academic profession, and these respondents in late 1945 were considering their past habits, not the future. Where then were the long three-month vacations that you hear about in this easy academic life? Only 15 per cent of the women and 5 per cent of the men got more than two months. Nor is a mere 8 hours of recreation per week more than a symptom of industry. These psychologists are a hard-working lot-all in all an industrious, hard-driving crowd, ambitious, aware of shortcomings, dissatisfied with the present and yet in general content with the conditions under which they strive. The women and men are not alike, but they both work hard, accept the inevitable and try, not always successfully, to change almost everything else.

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#### SUMMARY

1. We sent a questionnaire to each of the 440 American women who took PhDs in psychology in 1921–1940 and also to each of 440 men, matched individually to the women by university and date of PhD. The questionnaire dealt with matters that affect the professional careers of psychologists. We received replies from 245 women, which is about 60 per cent of the corrected population, and from 247 men, which is probably about 30 per cent of the corresponding male population. The replies are dated from December 1945 to April 1946.

2. The women PhDs appear to have had a family background more favorable to advanced education than the men PhDs. The women's parents had, on the average, more education than the men's. The women have fewer fathers who did not get through high school, more fathers who took advanced degrees after college. The women have fewer foreign-born parents. The women's fathers' jobs lie higher in the occupational scale than the men's fathers', and more of the women's mothers have had professional positions than have the men's mothers.

3. Here is the typical picture of how these persons decided to become psychologists. They became interested in psychology in their late teens. They decided on a career in psychology at about 24. They got the PhD at about 29.

4. These psychologists, in general, expressed

satisfaction with their professional training, and then went on to complain that they had not had more of it. In a list of 25 subjects in which graduate students can be trained, our 492 persons checked 1,848 subjects as fields in which they wished they had had more training and only 408 items as having been emphasized too much in training. This criticism reflects the shift in psychology away from the laboratory and old-fashioned scholarship toward clinical practice and personnel work. Both men and women would like to have had more training in clinical techniques, personnel procedures, field work, internships, and statistics, and less emphasis upon foreign languages (especially German), experimental psychology, laboratory practice, systematic psychology, and the history of psychology. Sex differences in these wishes are not striking.

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5. We sought to assess the prevalence of prejudice as affecting employment. Employers are prejudiced against incompetence, sometimes against youth and sometimes against age. There is reported only a little prejudice against political views and activities, and not so much more against race and religion. Both men and women are convinced that there is much more prejudice against the female sex (and practically none against the male sex), but this fact must be considered in relation to the other fact that in some psychological work it is helpful to be female. Within professional psychology 'women's work' and 'men's work' are not always the same. (See item 10 infra.)

6. Seven men in ten, six women in ten, have fulltime employment in psychology. The men, taken all together, spend 82 per cent of their time in paid psychological employment, the women 65 per cent of theirs. In all kinds of paid employment, the men spend 98 per cent of their time, the women 72 per cent. Responsibilities of the women for household and children do not count as paid employment.

7. Women get lower salaries than men, and married women slightly lower salaries than unmarried, even when all of the persons considered have full-time paid employment in psychology. Salaries tend to increase with age, and we think that the fact that men in their thirties have recently been doing as well financially as men in the forties is an artifact of war conditions. Some of our results are affected by the depreciation of the

dollar in the last quarter-century, but we believe it is approximately true to say that, at the present time, women psychologists, when fully employed, whether married or unmarried, make, on the average, about 20 to 40 per cent less than men of the same ages, that is to say, from \$1,000 to \$2,000 a year less.

8. Most of these psychologists like their profession. Almost none of them regrets what he or she has done within or for the profession. There is a little more complaint about the present job than about the profession, but not much. The psychologists know how to accept the reality which is theirs.

9. The women seem almost as satisfied with their profession and their professional activities as the men, although they make it clear that marriage and profession are often in conflict. For many married women in psychology, responsibility to the family becomes more important than professional work. In the great majority of cases the women accept this potential conflict-situation, getting synchronous satisfactions from husband, children and work.

10. Both men and women think that women are, on the average, at a disadvantage professionally because of their sex. The men get work more easily. They earn more when they get it. In marriage they lack the women's conflict and perhaps for this reason are able to achieve more. They get promoted more readily. On the other hand, at least a fourth of the women claim that their sex has made it easier for them to secure desired work. Presumably they are the women with the women's jobs in psychology, the jobs in the schools, educational systems, clinics, guidance centers, hospitals, and custodial institutions. (Cf. item 17 infra.)

11. Both married women and married men like their marriages. We tried to give ample opportunity for complaint about marriage and we got complaints, but not in sufficient number to make us believe that there is much error in the direct statements that marriage is fairly satisfying or very satisfying to about 90 per cent of both groups.

12. On the other hand, the question as to whether marriage helps a professional career brings out a clear sex difference. For men marriage helps threefourths of the time, and for women only a little more than one-third of the time. A quarter of the women with full-time employment in psychology say that marriage makes a career more difficult, whereas more than half of the women with part-time employment in psychology either check the same statement or else note that marriage has caused them actually to abandon a career.

13. Children affect careers much as does marriage. Having children interferes more than a childless marriage with a woman's career. Having children advantages a man less in his profession than does marriage.

14. The women and the men show no sex differences in respect of the number of professional societies to which they belong, the number of offices and committee chairmanships which they hold, and the number of meetings which they attend every year.

15. Men and women with full-time employment in psychology do more professional reading than the others with part-time employment. Married women read less professional literature than unmarried women, and unmarried women a little less than men.

16. The married and unmarried women with fulltime employment in psychology spend about the same amount of time in research and writing, but very much less time than the men.

17. We think that items 15 and 16 supra can be explained in relation to item 10, which in turn accounts for item 7. There appears to be a basic difference between the interests of women and men, a difference which may have been imposed by the culture. The interest inventories tend to bring out this difference. It is a plausible hypothesis that the men psychologists are, on the whole, more strongly motivated to undertake research and writing. Since research and writing, and the large generalizations that research yields and that are most appropriately written about, all lead to renown, the male psychologists become more famous

than the female, and then receive larger salaries, partly for the reason that fame has a cash value.

18. The women in our group spend more time on domestic and familial activities than do the men, but the men spend a good deal of time in this way, mostly on the care of property. Almost one man in five reports doing some general housework, but none claims responsibility for sewing and mending.

19. Seven or eight hours a week is all the time that our psychologists average on recreational activities. There is no clear sex difference here; and our group contains few butterflies, either male or female.

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20. The women average about four weeks' vacation a year, the men about three. The three-month summer vacation, which all academics were once supposed to have, seems to have disappeared from the calendars of the psychologists.

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## Comment

This is the first appearance of a new section in the American Psychologist. It will be published as frequently as space and the accumulation of appropriate material permits. It will contain criticisms of previously published articles, suggestions for teaching, research, or practice in psychology that are of general interest, letters to the editor, and similar contributions. It is started because of the receipt of some short papers criticizing articles published earlier and because some psychologists have expressed regret that the American Psychologist did not provide regularly for such controversial notes.

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#### FOOTNOTE TO MILITARY PSYCHOLOGY

The voluminous literature of military psychology has been printed with hardly a hint that it differs from the psychological literature of peacetime. It does differ, significantly. One psychologist described the difference in these words: "Unlike the critical attitude that is usually present both in psychological articles and reviews, the literature of military psychology is surprisingly sweet in its absence of criticism (Harrell, Thomas W. Applications of Psychology in the American Army, Psychol. Bull., 1945, 42, 453).

Why the difference? In the opinion of this writer the causes are in the climate that surrounds military psychology. These causes are not news in themselves. But they have been insufficiently publicized with respect to their direct bearing on the literature of military psychology.

It is contended here that evaluation of wartime psychological writing requires consideration of three factors:

(1) Writing by military personnel must be submitted for approval. Psychological articles were no exceptions to the rule that higher officers had to

pass on material before publication. Since it is the consistent policy of the Armed Forces to present themselves in a good light, the sweetness and lack of criticism of war psychology becomes understandable.

(2) Psychology in the Armed Forces is science under an authoritarian regime. In the last analysis an authoritarian regime decides on the basis of seniority and rank. Ideas in the Armed Forcestend to bear the rank of their contributors and take precedence accordingly. Criticism in this atmosphere may be restrained.

The military psychologist—like other scientists—was first an officer whose entire existence was subject to the absolute command of another officer. Only secondarily was he a specialist. To challenge opinions and methods of higher officers, whose insight into and acceptance of psychological procedures varied enormously, was to challenge in the face of almost unlimited power to alter unfavorably the personal and professional position of the individual psychologist. Perhaps this power was seldom invoked. But it was always there. How often military psychologists felt helpless in the presence of conditions that required remedy could be revealed only by soul-searching on their part.

(3) The ultimate judge of military psychology was usually not a psychologist. It was in the nature of wartime Armed Forces organization that the highest authority rested with professional military men whose knowledge of psychology, with the very best of intentions, made it impossible for them to look beyond the attractive colored charts presented to them and inquire into the actual value of the psychological work they represented. The extent to which approval of psychological work was based on speed, quantity, and apparent smoothness, is problematical to say the least.

The manner in which these three pressures operated differed with each individual psychologist, the nature of his assignment, and his rank, as well as the education, personality, and rank of his commanding officers. It is difficult to believe that they failed to operate to some degree in every case. As a result, "the literature of military psychology is surprisingly sweet in its absence of criticism."

Can psychology, with its inquiring attitude towards questions which often touch personally the lives and prerogatives of the Armed Forces authorities, ever be free to function at its efficient best in that hierarchy? Can we afford sweetness and absence of criticism in a life-and-death emergency?

In the opinion of the writer the answer to both questions is negative. It is submitted that the place for military psychologists is outside the Armed Forces, acting freely in an advisory capacity.

> ROBERT TYSON Hunter College

#### ARE RAT PSYCHOLOGISTS RESPONSIBLE FOR FISSION?

In a recent article in THIS JOURNAL (September, 1946) Dr. David Krech called attention to a current trend toward fission between "experimental" and "professional" psychology. The present writer is well aware of the existence of this trend, and, with Dr. Krech, considers it deplorable, and wishes something could be done to effect not only greater cooperation between the "pure" pure psychologists (to use Dr. Krech's term) and psychologists who seek practical applications of the science, but also greater mutual admiration and respect for the efforts which each group is making to put psychology as a whole on a sounder basis. If such a state of greater cooperation, admiration, and respect is to be achieved, however, it ought not to involve either the complete dominance of the one group of psychologists by the other, nor a radical "about face" in attitude toward scientific values by either group. To the present writer, Dr. Krech's suggestions for "curing" fission seem to emphasize such an about face, particularly with regard to those psychologists whose experimental and theoretical contributions are based on studies of the rat.

There is no doubt that a thoroughgoing appraisal of the contributions of rat psychologists would be welcomed (especially by the rat psychologists themselves), but Dr. Krech's evaluation of the rat psychologist as being primarily a skilled rat-handler appears disparaging rather than appraising. Of

course, Dr. Krech may feel entitled to belittle his own contributions to rat psychology, but were the present writer to evaluate rat psychology, he would rank those same contributions high in the list of important studies. Moreover, little is gained by attempting to assess the progress of comparative psychology in terms of the titles of published articles. Too often, unfortunately, little can be learned about the content of an article from reading its title. Dr. Krech cites, among such titles, one reading An Experimental Investigation of the Law of Effect in the Maze-Learning of Albino Rats. He proposes that the psychologist who produced this title and the study connected with it might better have spent his time conducting An Experimental Investigation of the Law of Effect In Attitude Formation Among Republicans.

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The latter type of investigation obviously falls within the province of social psychology, and would probably yield data of considerable interest, but the title itself suggests certain hazards in scientific investigation which bear closer examination. For example, the present writer is much more certain of the meaning of the term albino rats than of the term Republican. In fact, unless the first investigation involved excessive use of visual cues, the term might just as well be shortened to rats, non-visual differences between albino rats and their pigmented relatives being scarcely worth considering in a learning experiment. Furthermore, no rat psychologist would be very curious to know whether the first experiment dealt with New York rats, Minnesota rats, or California rats, but who would venture to say the same for Republicans?

A comparison of the problems confronted by these two types of investigation points out very clearly that scientific study of man in his intricate social context is at once more direct and less general in application. To obtain more general findings it is necessary to extract man from his social environment-or to study rats. The student who has learned his psychology on rats, or on man in the simple laboratory situation, has, it is hoped, developed some ideas about control of variables, and the dangers of over-generalization. Should this same student then engage in psychological work of a more practical nature, these ideas ought to transfer (despite Dr. Krech's skepticism regarding this point). The present writer must conclude that he would feel more sure of the study of Republicans if it were conCOMMENT

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ducted by an individual whose awareness of the limitations of psychology's tools had been sharpened in a few good laboratory experiments.

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The study of man in his social contexts, political, racial, familial, etc., should be furthered, but the present writer believes, with Tolman, (Science, 1945, 101, 160–166), that "there are certain basic laws and principles which can still be studied more conveniently and with just as much validity in rats as in men."

If the "pure" rat psychologists are not then to give up their work and all become socially-oriented psychologists, what is to be done about the portentous fission? One fundamental problem is reflected in the attitude of almost every beginning student of psychology, who asks, "What is this for?" By which he is likely to mean, "How can I use it—and in a hurry." He is impatient of an instructor who replies, "Slowly, now! Let's first acquire some skill in the use of the basic tools and techniques before we start practicing."

In every natural science, and in its applied branches, patience is the watchword. Actual application of the tools and techniques without diligent study of their bases is not countenanced. Imagine a physician without physiology! Most of the time, the student feels that his studies are to some degree pertinent, oriented toward the ultimate goal of professional practice. In this latter respect the experimental psychologist frequently fails; he does not maintain that orientation for his students. The present writer believes that this failing can be overcome if instructors, whether or not their primary interests are "experimental" or "professional", will encourage the student with the "applied" turn of mind to learn "How it works," as well as "What it is for." If this is done, the contributions of the rat psychologists, and the social psychologists, too, will take on new significance for both student and instructor, resulting in a greater degree of transfer from pure to applied fields of endeavor.

> C. W. CRANNELL Miami University

# MUST PSYCHOLOGISTS BE EXPERIMENTAL ISOLATIONISTS?

Psychologists spend too much time and energy upon research yielding only suggestive results. Work is wasted on samples that are too small for anything but pilot studies and on local studies whose significance for the field is obscured by the indeterminate effect of local conditions.

There is a need for coordinated research on significant problems. The same project should be carried out at a number of different institutions spread over the country and the separate findings pooled. The benefits of such an arrangement would be several:

- A reasonably large total N, perhaps one or several thousand instead of one hundred or less.
- (2) Highly reliable findings as compared to those of the typical small study.
- (3) A total population not affected by one set of specific local conditions.
- (4) Adequate controls on particular factors such as age and education.
- (5) Opportunity to determine the special influences operating in particular segments of the population.

Cooperative efforts are currently the exception in psychological research. However, the American Council on Education, the Cooperative Test Service, and the Civil Aeronautics Authority have each sponsored research in which the same experiment was repeated in different places or for which data were obtained from many separate localities. Again, the May, 1946, Newsletter of SPSSI mentions a Committee on Cooperative Research.

The range of possible problems for such a coordinated research program is obviously very great. Psychologists interested in measurement know of many problems on adequate standardization and validation of testing procedures. Even the study of personality structure would benefit from coordinated projects where broad cultural influences could be separated from specific local factors. Again, intensive research on the dynamics of attitudes and prejudices should not be handicapped by the conditions in a particular locality. The reader can think of several definite problems in his own fields of specialization which call for a unified attack.

As a specific example, one project on which psychologists might work together is the development of measures to select graduate students and to predict their success in the various fields of psychology. Through the technical advantages listed above, cooperative efforts could yield an enlightened personnel selection program for psychology itself.

(Concluded on page 28)

# Across the Secretary's Desk

#### REQUIREMENTS FOR MEMBERSHIP IN THE DIVISIONS OF THE AMERICAN PSYCHOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION

Each division of the APA has the right to establish its own requirements for membership as long as those requirements are not lower than those set by the APA as a whole. In so far as they have been announced, the division requirements are stated below.

Associates must first meet the general APA requirements before they can be considered for division membership. A prospective Associate may apply to the APA office at 1515 Massachusetts Avenue NW, Washington 5, D. C. for application blanks. These completed blanks should be returned to the APA office. The deadline is March 1. The Board of Directors will consider applications in March. Persons elected will be notified in April and may then apply to the divisions of their choice for division membership.

Applicants for election as Associates may qualify by meeting any one of the following four sets of requirements.

 Have a doctor's degree based in part upon a psychological dissertation and conferred by a graduate school of recognized standing; or

2. Have completed at least two full academic years of graduate work in psychology in a recognized graduate school, and at the time of submitting application be devoting full time to graduate or professional work that is primarily psychological in nature; or

3. Have completed at least one full academic year of graduate work in psychology in a recognized graduate school plus at least one full year of experience in professional work that is psychological in nature, and at the time of submitting application be devoting full time to graduate or professional work that is primarily psychological in nature; or

4. Be distinguished scientists, educators, or other persons whom the Board of Directors may recommend for election. Fellows of the APA must meet considerably higher requirements. They must:

 Have a doctor's degree based in part upon a psychological dissertation conferred by a graduate school of recognized standing. (In exceptional cases this requirement can be waived by the Council of Representatives).

Have been elected as an Associate at some prior time. Direct election of Fellows is no longer possible.

3. Either have acceptable published research of a psychological character beyond the doctor's degree or have four years of acceptable professional experience subsequent to the granting of the doctor's degree.

4. Be recommended to the APA by one of the divisions. A present Associate who wishes to become a Fellow must apply to the secretary of the division of his choice. Secretaries of all divisions are named in the November, 1946 issue of This Journal.

Listed below are the present requirements for membership for Associates and Fellows in each division. The expression "no special requirements" means that election as an Associate or Fellow is based solely on meeting general APA requirements and applying to the division by letter. Where special requirements are given, it is to be understood that the general APA requirements must also be met, but the two requirements are not necessarily additive. For example, when the requirement of Division 16 reads "Four years of experience as a school psychologist," this experience can also be applied toward the basic APA requirement.

Some divisions provide for a class of Division Affiliates. Specific requirements are not stated below, but the existence or non-existence of this provision is indicated.

Some divisions have not yet ratified their by-laws, and their requirements are marked "Tentative".

 Division of General Psychology Fellows—No special requirement Associates—No special requirement Affiliates—Yes

2. Division on the Teaching of Psychology (Tentative)

Fellows—Being actively engaged in teaching in a recognized institution

Associates—Being actively engaged in teaching in a recognized institution

Affiliates-Not decided

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3. Division of Theoretical-Experimental Psychology

Fellows—Acceptable published research in the field of theoretical and experimental psychology

Associates—No special requirement Affiliates—Yes

5. Division on Evaluation and Measurement

Fellows—Either (1) acceptable published work in the field of evaluation and measurement beyond the doctor's degree, or (2) distinguished professional service in the field of evaluation and measurement

Associates—One year of acceptable training in research or practice in the field of psychological measurement

Affiliates-Yes

6. Division of Physiological and Comparative Psychology

Fellows—Being actively engaged in teaching and/or research in the fields of physiological and/or comparative psychology

Associates—Being either in training or in practice in the fields of physiological and/or comparative psychology or fields of closely allied interest

Affiliates-Yes

7. Division on Childhood and Adolescence

Fellows—No special requirement Associates—No special requirement

Affiliates-Yes

 Division of Personality and Social Psychology Fellows—Application to Executive Secretary of APA

Associates—Application to Executive Secretary of APA

Affiliates-No

The Society for the Psychological Study of Social Issues—A Division of the APA

Fellows—Promise to aid the society in attaining its objectives Associates—Promise to aid the society in attaining its objectives

Affiliates-Yes

10. Division on Esthetics

Fellows—Significant research contributions of direct value to esthetics and related areas

Associates—Published work in the field of esthetics and related areas

Affiliates-No

12. Division of Clinical and Abnormal Psychology

Fellows in Clinical Psychology—Not less than
four years of successful full time clinical
practice, or its accumulated equivalent,
such as to yield a presumption of professional competence in (1) history or interview procedures, (2) techniques of psychological testing or personality evaluation, (3)
the synthesis of case evidence, and (4)
therapeutic or guidance counseling

Fellows in Abnormal Psychology—Either acceptable published research in abnormal psychology beyond the doctor's degree, or four years of acceptable professional experience in abnormal psychology subsequent to the granting of the doctor's degree

Associates—Satisfactory evidence of not less than two years of successful full time clinical experience, or its accumulated equivalent, such as to yield a presumption of reasonable competence in clinical psychology, or satisfactory evidence of two years of experience in professional work that is psychological in character in the field of abnormal psychology

Affiliates—Yes, including APA members who do not meet the above requirements

13. Division of Consulting Psychology

Fellcws—Four full years of paid consulting experience subsequent to the granting of the doctor's degree

Associates-None admitted

Affiliates-No

14. Division of Industrial and Business Psychology Requirements not yet announced

15. Division of Educational Psychology

Fellows—Active interest in educational psychology

Associates—Active interest in educational psychology

Affiliates-Yes

16. Division of School Psychologists

Fellows—Four years of experience as a school psychologist

Associates—An M.A. or higher degree and two years of experience as a school psychologist, or be active in teaching, training, or administration of school psychology, or have made significant research contributions to the practice of school psychology

Affiliates-Yes

17. Division of Counseling and Guidance Psychologists

Fellows—At least two years of professional experience in a counseling or guidance activity or organization wherein they had individual responsibility for full case work Associates—Employment in a counseling or guidance activity or organization

Affiliates-Yes

18. Division of Psychologists in Public Service

Fellows—Active interest in the application or stucy of psychology in the public service

Associates—Active interest in the application or study of psychology in the public service Affiliates—No

19. Division of Military Psychology

Fellows—Satisfactory evidence of accomplishment in military psychology

Associates—Satisfactory evidence of accomplishment in military psychology

Affiliates-No

 Division of Psychology of Adulthood and Old Age (Tentative)

Fellows-Active interest in the work of the

Associates—Active interest in the work of the division

Affiliates-Yes

#### TESTING IS BIG BUSINESS

Last spring Walter Dill Scott, who since his retirement from the presidency of Northwestern University has become Chairman of the Editorial Board of Nelson's Encyclopedia, wrote asking if it would be possible to secure reasonably accurate figures on the total number of psychological tests administered during one recent year and the total number of people to whom those tests were administered. He

wanted the information for publication in Nelson's Encyclopedia as a brief and dramatic demonstration of the widespread use and influence of one psychological development. The principal publishers of tests and the government agencies which have produced most tests for government use cooperated by supplying figures or estimates of their own production for 1944 and the size of the population tested during that year.

The totals are large. During 1944 approximately 60,000,000 standardized tests were administered to approximately 20,000,000 people in this country.

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Military use was responsible for a large part of these totals. The Adjutant General's Office administered 4,993,142 tests to 2,302,919 people in 1944, the Army Air Forces 10,000,000 tests to 400,000 people, the Bureau of Naval Personnel 9,000,000 tests to 1,250,000 people, and the Bureau of Medicine and Surgery 240,000 tests to 80,000 men. The rounded figures are fairly accurate approximations.

In the same year the Civil Service Commission administered approximately 1,830,030 tests to some 1,210,000 people and the U. S. Employment Service gave 479,248 tests to 170,152 people. Including the other government agencies which use tests would

increase these figures substantially.

A fair estimate of the total number of standardized tests administered by educational institutions, business organizations, and personnel consultants can be obtained from the number of tests sold by commercial publishers and such non-profit agencies as the College Entrance Examination Board and the American Council on Education. The totals of the reported figures were 26,781,759 tests and 11,493,407 persons tested.

The above figures take no account of several testproducing agencies from which no reports were received. On the basis of their size in comparison with agencies for which we have data, it is safe to add several million to the total number of tests and people reported above, obtaining an estimated total of about 60,000,000 tests administered to about 20,000,000 people.

This is big business. When one adds the uncounted unstandardized tests which were influenced in their construction by standardized tests, a total is reached which any pioneer of the testing movement must find a satisfactory reward for his early enthusiasm and labor.

#### PSYCHOLOGICAL FRAUDS

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nent usiDuring the past few months Post Office inspectors and attorneys have eliminated three mail order personality analysis and success courses. Each owner signed an affidavit promising to end his business and to return any mail that comes to him in connection with it.

Last summer an inspector and an attorney from the Post Office called upon me with a request for help in evaluating the materials used by the three concerns in the courses and services which they furnished to those who purchased the materials offered, and of the claims made in their advertising.

Fcr a few dollars, one of the defendants sent four lessons that would, if the advertisements could be believed, give the purchaser friends, influence, better jobs, health, freedom from worry, and just about anything else he desired. For good measure the purchaser also got a cheap metal good luck charm. After reading them I had no more friends, no more influence, no better job, no better health, and no fewer worries than I had had before. Also, the inspector kept the good luck charm.

The postal authorities prepared a formal statement of charges. Presented with the charges, the author signed a "cease and desist" affidavit without letting the case come to trial.

The second case was that of a mail-order Ph.D. who sold a set of self-improvement lessons under the slogan *Psychology that works*. The trial was brief. After evidence showing that he had used the mails to make extravagant promises, and after I had testified that those promises could not be fulfilled by the lessons, the "Doctor" signed a "cease and desist" affidavit.

For a time the third case presented a more spirited opposition. The defendant had offered to make a personality analysis of anyone who sent him a one dollar fee and filled out his analysis questionnaire. In return for his dollar the purchaser actually received a three-page form letter. John G. Jenkins and I both appeared as government witnesses. Defense witnesses were a psychiatrist and a personnel manager. After a two-day hearing, this defendant also requested permission to sign an affidavit promising to end his personality analysis business.

These were the first three psychological cases which the postal authorities had ever attempted to

bring to trial. When we first discussed these cases, the inspector explained that they had been hesitant to tackle them because of doubts of their ability to demonstrate that the claims made were actually fraudulent, and because of uncertainty about securing appropriate government witnesses. They were encouraged to learn that professional psychologists were interested in their problems and willing to testify.

The procedure followed in these cases was the same as that used in handling medical or stock-selling schemes thought to be fraudulent. A statement of charges is prepared. The defendant is served with a copy and ordered to appear for a hearing. The government case consists of presenting evidence to show that certain specified claims or promises were made and that the mails were used for that purpose. Later testimony then attempts to demonstrate that the claims were not fulfilled by the materials furnished the purchaser. The defense, of course, seeks to demonstrate that the claims were fulfilled. The trial is held before a Post Office Hearing Officer. Upon completion, the Hearing Officer has a complete transcript of the proceedings. A copy of the proceedings is given to the defendant who is allowed time to prepare written rebuttal. The Hearing Officer considers the transcript and the rebuttal and judges that the mails either were or were not used for fraudulent purposes.

If a fraud judgment is rendered, the defendant cannot receive any mail. All mail addressed to him is returned to the sender with a stamped statement on it indicating that a fraud judgment has been rendered. Since all his mail is treated alike, his gas bill, letters from friends, magazines to which he subscribes, and dividend checks go back to the sender unopened and with an announcement of the fraud judgment on them. This is not a pleasant penalty. In order to avoid the possibility of it, each of the three defendants in these cases promised to end their business before judgment was rendered. Signing the affidavits allowed them to continue to receive personal mail, and also allowed them to continue to receive any business mail not connected with the business against which fraud hearings were directed. Mail connected with that business they must return to the sender stamped to indicate that the business has been terminated. Post Office inspectors may, of course, from time to time send letters to the old business to make certain that such mail is being returned in accordance with the signed affidavit. If the defendant violates his promises, a fraud judgment, with its attendant penalties, is immediately rendered.

In addition to the civil proceedings outlined above, the postal authorities may present fraud cases to the United States District Attorney for criminal action. If a criminal trial is held and the defendant found guilty, penitentiary sentences may be imposed.

The postal regulations obviously do not begin to solve all the problems of eliminating psychological racketeers from the scene. State laws defining psychologists and establishing regulations for their training and practice are also necessary. The postal regulations do, however, provide a means of bringing to trial those who make fraudulent promises through the mails.—Dael Wolfle

#### (Continued from page 23)

While this proposal has certain rational points in its favor, there is at least one immediately apparent difficulty. Since such a program would have to be voluntary, how would the individual investigator be motivated to cooperate? Provision must be made for him to obtain recognition. Publication of a list of collaborators in the summary report would hardly be adequate. However, if they wished, several of the investigators could participate in working up the data from all the cooperating groups.

The proper organization of the project would help evoke cooperation. The first step would be to set up a committee of recognized research men, their job being to select those problems the solution of which is crucial to the advance of knowledge in

particular fields. The committee might function within the framework of the APA. Having selected a feasible and critical topic for investigation, it would draw up an experimental design. Plans and necessary materials would then be distributed to professional colleagues having appropriate facilities and interest. The data would be analyzed under the direction of the committee. While the collaborator in the field could assist in this task, he need only administer his part of the project; this would require far less time and effort than setting up and executing any purely local research. Once the organization was functioning, each contributor would have the satisfaction of reading significant and definitive findings instead of the plethora of minor, indeterminate studies which fill many journals.

DONALD W. FISKE University of Michigan the

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# Psychological News and Notes

CHARLES H. JUDD, dean emeritus of education at the University of Chicago, died July 18, 1946 at the age of seventy-three years.

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LORRAINE BOUTHILET, Managing Editor of the AMERICAN PSYCHOLOGIST for its first year, has returned to the University of Chicago to complete work for her doctor's degree.

ANNE ANASTASI has resigned from Queens College where she was chairman of the department of psychology. Dr. Anastasi's present address is 121 East 38th St., New York 16, New York.

DAVID P. BODER spent three months during the summer of 1946 in Europe studying displaced persons. Using a magnetic wire recorder, he recorded verbatim the stories of the DP's. Some Maquis and Spanish Loyalists who were deported to Germany by the Nazis were also included in the population interviewed. Dr. Boder covered a number of DP camps and children's colonies in France, Switzerland, Italy, and the American Zone in Germany. He has a total of 190 spools of recordings, mainly in German, Russian, Yiddish, Polish, and French.

Rohrer, Hibler and Replogle announce the appointment of Ottis K. McMahon as a staff psychologist at their Chicago office. He was formerly an industrial psychologist of the American Optical Company.

Bernard Sless has returned to the position of Regional Chief, Division of Occupational Analysis and Industrial Services in the New York Regional Office of the United States Employment Service. During the war he acted as clinical psychologist in the Fourth Service Command Rehabilitation Center, Fort Jackson, South Carolina, and at the Branch U. S. Disciplinary Barracks, Fort Hancock, New Jersey. REGINALD SWANN is now associate professor of psychology at the Teachers College of Connecticut, New Britain, Connecticut. Dr. Swann was formerly associate professor of psychology at St. Lawrence University, Canton, New York.

George W. Boguslavsky has accepted a position as an instructor at the University of Connecticut. Captain Boguslavsky's most recent Army assignment was instructing in the Adjutant General's School at Fort Oglethorpe. Previously he was in counter intelligence work in the Pacific Area.

Indiana University has increased the size of the department of psychology. Present members of the department are: B. F. Skinner, chairman; J. R. Kantor, W. N. Kellogg, Roland C. Davis, Merrill Roff (on leave), Douglas G. Ellson, Delton C. Beier, William S. Verplanck, Jr., William O. Jenkins, William K. Estes, David T. Herman, P. E. Lichtenstein, Irvin S. Wolf, Robert E. Dreher, and S. L. Glazer. Dr. Beier is the director of the psychological clinic. The most recent addition to the staff is Sidney W. Bijou, who will arrive in February. He will have charge of the graduate studies in the psychological clinic.

F. C. BARTLETT of the University of Cambridge will give the Vanuxem Lectures at Princeton on February 25, 26 and 27, 1947. He will speak on "Group Contacts in Contemporary Society." The titles of the three lectures are "Psychology of the Large Social Group," "Forms and Results of Group Contact," and "Predictions in the Field of Group Contact."

Dr. Bartlett hopes to have the opportunity of visiting some of the other American universities before returning to England about April 18.

RITA M. TURCHIOE has accepted an appointment as a school psychologist in the Bureau of Child Guidance, Board of Education, New York City. She was formerly a clinical psychologist at the Catholic Charities Guidance Institute, New York City.

SIDNEY W. KORAN has accepted the position of assistant personnel director for the New York activities of United Merchants and Manufacturers, Inc. Captain Koran recently returned from the Pacific for release to inactive duty after three years' service, principally as a Personnel Classification Officer in the Marine Corps.

LESTER R. ARONSON, assistant curator of the Department of Animal Behavior, American Museum of Natural History, has been appointed acting chairman and associate curator.

JACK MATTHEWS has joined the staff of the Speech and Hearing Clinic at Purdue University. In addition to clinical duties in speech correction, Dr. Matthews is in charge of statistics and evaluation in the clinic.

MAURICE H. KROUT, executive director of the Chicago Psychological Institute, has been invited by Nelson's Encyclopedia to act as editorial consultant for its forthcoming edition. His task is to assign and pass upon the approximately six hundred psychological and psychiatric entries.

The Committee on Student Affiliates has selected LAURENCE SIEGEL, MARGARET SHUTTLEWORTH and FRANK VANASEK as student representatives on the committee.

PHIL S. SHURRAGER has recently accepted the chairmanship of the department of psychology and education at the Illinois Institute of Technology. Formerly he was with the firm of Stevenson, Jordan, and Harrison.

RICHARD W. FAUBION, Lt. Col., A.C., has been assigned to duty as Chief of the Psychological Section, Office of the Surgeon, Headquarters, Air Training Command, Barksdale Field. Col. Faubion has accepted a commission in the United States Army.

WILLIAM B. AXTELL, formerly of the public school system of Ithaca, New York, has been appointed

assistant professor at Union College, Schenectady, New York. A gift of \$50,000 has been received by Union College for the remodeling of the laboratory of psychology. It is being equipped for the special purpose of psychological measurements, including sound and vision observation screens and a modern recording and communications system. The Character Research Project, under the guidance of the chairman of the department, Ernest M. Ligon, is now in its twelfth year.

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The District of Columbia Psychological Association held its first meeting December 4, 1946. Thelma Hunt, chairman of the department of psychology at George Washington University, was elected president. Other officers are Isabelle V. Kendig, president-elect; Charles N. Cofer, secretary; Charles I. Mosier, treasurer; Max Meenes and Dwight Chapman, members of the executive committee.

The District of Columbia Psychological Association is an outgrowth of the Washington-Baltimore Branch of the APA. The Washington-Baltimore Branch, which has been affiliated with the APA for a number of years, decided last spring to disband in order to allow the organization of separate associations for Maryland and the District of Columbia. The new association has adopted the stated purposes of the APA, and is requesting continued affiliation with the APA. Membership is open to any APA member employed or living in the region of the District of Columbia.

A psychology club has been formed under the leadership of Percival M. Symonds in New York City with representation from the fields of psychology, sociology, anthropology, psychiatry, psychoanalysis, and religion. The first meeting this fall was held on November 22. A report was presented by Joel Shor and Sylvia Brecher on "Hypnotic Regression." Meetings are held at the Men's Faculty Club of Columbia University.

The newly elected officers of the Psychology Section of the New York Academy of Sciences are: S. STANSFELD SARGENT, Barnard College, chairman and CLAIRETTE P. ARMSTRONG, Domestic Relations Court, New York City, secretary. Meetings are held the third Monday of each month at the American Museum of Natural History.

The fiftieth anniversary of the founding of the psychological laboratory at Wesleyan University, one of the first psychological laboratories in the country, was celebrated at Middletown, Connecticut on December 13 and 14. During the celebration, tribute was paid to the late Professor RAYMOND DODGE, long head of the psychology department, in whose memory a Raymond Dodge Memorial Fund is now being raised. Both the Connecticut State Psychological Society and the Connecticut Valley Association of Psychologists held business meetings at Wesleyan University at this time.

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Bowdoin College has received three gifts from psychologists. They were left the libraries of Charles T. Burnett, formerly professor of psychology there, and of Edwin B. Holt. Lewis W. Kline has contributed his large collection of portraits of philosophers and psychologists.

Three members of the Executive Committee of the Division of School Psychologists, HARRY J. BAKER, president, MARGARET E. HALL, president-elect, and MILTON A. SAFFIR, secretary, met in Chicago on November 24. Committees were appointed and plans for activities discussed. Applications for membership may now be made on blanks which can be obtained from the secretary of the division. There is no established membership list, so that all who are interested in joining the division should apply for membership, even if they have previously indicated their wish to join.

In Psychometrika of September 1946, a method is described for using simple diagrams to compute tetrachoric correlation coefficients. The data needed to use these diagrams are limited to an easily computed ratio and the percentage differences between the two groups being compared. Reprints of these two articles, together with a set of 12 computing diagrams, are available for the asking from the Marketing and Research Service, Dun and Bradstreet, Inc., 290 Broadway, New York 8, New York, as long as the supply of copies lasts.

The Western State Psychiatric Institute and Clinic, under the direction of Saul Rosenzweig and Kate Levine Kogan, announces that two senior and two junior internships in psychology will be open

in September 1947. Either men or women are eligible. These internships offer opportunity for supervised clinical and research experience with mental patients. Appointments are for twelve months and in all cases provide full maintenance at the institute. In addition, senior interns receive \$110 per month. The qualifications for junior interns include the BA degree and undergraduate concentration in psychology with special reference to personality, clinical, and testing techniques. The senior intern must have an MA in psychology and considerable proficiency in clinical techniques. Applications will be accepted until March 15; appointments announced on approximately April 15, 1947. Inquiries should be addressed to: Grosvenor B. Pearson, M.D., Director, Western State Psychiatric Institute and Clinic, Pittsburgh 13, Pennsylvania.

The Psychological Services, Department of Social Welfare, 40 Fountain Street, Providence, Rhode Island, has a vacancy for a position of psychometrist, starting salary \$2280. Inquiries should be addressed to Mrs. Helena H. Shea, administrator.

An assistantship is offered at Northwestern University Medical School for a graduate student in psychology interested in working for an advanced degree. The research will deal chiefly with experimental neurosis. Opportunity to study human material in the clinic and to take courses in the Medical School will also be available. The assistantship will pay \$2400. Applications should be sent to Dr. Jules Masserman or to Dr. G. K. Yacorzynski, Department of Nervous and Mental Diseases, Northwestern University Medical School, 303 East Chicago Ave., Chicago, Illinois.

The APA Committee on Graduate and Professional Training in Psychology is revising the listings of graduate training facilities in clinical psychology published last May (Amer. Psychologist, 1946, 1, 135–150). In order to secure up-to-date information, the committee has mailed questionnaires to the chairmen of departments offering graduate work in psychology. Any chairman who has not received one should write immediately to Robert R. Sears, State University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa, requesting the set of forms on which to submit information to the committee.

# Convention Calendar

## AMERICAN PSYCHOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION, INC.

Date: September 9-13, 1947 Place: Detroit, Michigan

#### For information write to:

Dr. Dael Wolfle, Executive Secretary American Psychological Association 1515 Massachusetts Avenue, N. W. Washington 5, D. C.

#### AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF SCIENCE

Date: December 26-31, 1947

Place: Stevens Hotel,
Chicago, Illinois

#### For information write to:

Dr. John M. Hutzel American Association for the Advancement of Science 1515 Massachusetts Avenue, N. W. Washington 5, D. C.

#### ROCKY MOUNTAIN BRANCH OF THE AMERICAN PSYCHOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION

Date: May, 1947

Place: Colorado College

Colorado Springs, Colorado

#### For information write to:

Dr. Lillian G. Portenier Department of Psychology University of Wyoming Laramie, Wyoming

# THE SOUTHERN SOCIETY FOR PHILOSOPHY AND PSYCHOLOGY

Date: April 4-5, 1947
Place: St. Louis, Missouri

#### For information write to:

Dr. Joseph Weitz Sophie Newcomb College, Tulane University New Orleans, Louisiana

#### SOUTHWESTERN PSYCHOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION

Date: April 4-5, 1947 Place: Dallas, Texas

#### For information write to:

Dr. L. B. Hoisington Department of Psychology University of Oklahoma Norman, Oklahoma

#### MIDWESTERN PSYCHOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION

Date: May 2-3, 1947

Place: Edgewater Beach Hotel
Chicago, Illinois

#### For information write to:

Dr. Claude E. Buxton Department of Psychology Northwestern University Evanston, Illinois

#### WESTERN PSYCHOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION

Date: June, 1947

Place: Los Angeles

(host institution to be announced)

#### For information write to:

Dr. Lester F. Beck Department of Psychology University of Oregon Eugene, Oregon

## ILLINOIS ASSOCIATION FOR APPLIED PSYCHOLOGY

Date: February, 1947

Place: Chicago, Illinois

#### For information write to:

Dr. Milton A. Saffir, Secretary 55 East Washington St., Room 1607 Chicago 2, Illinois

#### EASTERN PSYCHOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION

Date: April 25 and 26, 1947

Place: Chalfonte-Haddon Hall
Atlantic City, New Jersey

#### For information write to:

Dr. J. McV. Hunt Institute of Welfare Research Community Service Society 105 East 22nd Street New York 10, N. Y.

#### AMERICAN ORTHOPSYCHIATRIC ASSOCIATION

Date: February 17-19, 1947

Place: Netherlands-Plaza Hotel
Cincinnati, Ohio

#### For information write to:

Dr. Nina Ridenour N. Y. C. Committee on Mental Hygiene 105 East 22nd Street New York 10, N. Y. N

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